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COUNSELING PRACTICUM AS A FACILITATOR OF SELF-ACTUALIZATION

by

LILIANE STEEVES

University of Alberta

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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ABSTRACT

This study was designed to assess whether the counseling practicum within the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Alberta facilitates self-actualization (SA). Using a quasi independent groups design, the 12 subscale scores on the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) for 20 counseling students without practicum, 37 counseling students with practicum and 22 non counseling students were compared.

Counseling students with practicum scored significantly higher ($p<.05$) than counseling students without practicum on 8 subscales. Counseling students with practicum scored significantly higher than non counseling students on 9 subscales. Counseling students without practicum were not significantly different from non counseling students on 11 subscales. Neither length of time in the graduate program nor entering level of SA were confounded with the facilitation of SA by practicum experience.

The construct validity of the POI was also investigated by replicating earlier studies of the relationship between POI subscales, Neuroticism and Extraversion measured by the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI). Results confirmed a negative relationship between Neuroticism and POI subscales. Although there were no significant correlations between Extraversion and POI subscales as found in earlier studies, the present data were interpreted as more compatible with Maslow's original concept of SA.

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The results of this study were interpreted as clearly indicating the facilitative effect of practicum experience upon SA and supporting the validity of the construct of SA as measured by the POI.

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I. INTRODUCTION, LITERATURE REVIEW AND RATIONALE

A. Introductory Overview

This study was intended to contribute towards the development of answers to the following questions: Does the practicum component of the counseling program of the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Alberta facilitate self-actualization (SA) as measured by the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI)? Does SA correlate negatively with Neuroticism, as measured by the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI), as it should if SA is a valid construct? These central questions address applied and theoretical issues respectively.

The remainder of the first chapter begins with a discussion of philosophical perspectives, values, paradigms and epistemologies as they relate to the study of personality. Particular attention is paid to the role of determinism and teleology. This discussion is intended to facilitate the understanding of Maslow's somewhat different approach to the study of personality with its emphasis upon health rather than pathology and the realization of latent potentials within the person.

The discussion then moves to an examination of the concept of SA and the dynamic process of SA. The major instrument available for measuring SA, the POI, is presented. Various types of reliability and validity, relating to the POI, are discussed through a comprehensive

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review of the research literature. Some of the problems of the instrument are reviewed such as temporal stability, faking, age trends and the validity of the POI as a measure of Maslow's original concept of SA.

An argument follows presenting the view that there is a reciprocal relationship between the counseling of clients and the personal growth of the counselor. The practicum component of the counseling program of the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Alberta is described in general terms then reviewed in more detail with a specific focus upon ways in which the program may explicitly or implicitly facilitate SA. Particular attention is given to self-awareness and counselor supervision within the context of the counseling practicum.

The first chapter concludes with the presentation of the purposes of this study and the statement of the hypotheses to be tested. The remaining chapters deal with the method, results, and discussion of the results of the study.

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B. Approaches to The Study of Personality

The study of personality revolves around the question of "who am I" (cf. Rychlack, 1973). Answers to this question are essentially ways of searching for personal meaning. The study of personality is influenced by the value system of the inquirer, particularly those values which relate to ways of knowing, for example a Lockean empiricist might search

for the basic building blocks of personality in materialistic terms, trying to establish facts in an objective way. A phenomenologist following the Kantian model of knowing may believe that all we can ever know is the product of our own phenomenal experience; hence all knowledge is subjective. This fundamental schisism in approach to the study of personality is discussed in detail by Rychlack (1973, Ch. 1). The interested reader is also referred to Bixenstine's (1976) provocative contention that in fact classes of events are not categorically separable into facts and values - facts are a special class of values.

A discussion of the ways of approaching personality inevitably leads to a discussion of paradigms or "ways of knowing". Masterman (1970) divides paradigms into three groups. The first type is a way of knowing which arises out of the attempt to solve a practical puzzle. The value implicit in this type of paradigm is pragmatism. The second type of paradigm evolves in a more sociologically determined fashion, as a result of a significant number of people in a particular field of knowledge who begin to adopt a particular approach to knowing more frequently than other ways. Consequently epistemological habits evolve within various areas of knowledge. An important thing to point out at this juncture is that established ways of knowing within a particular society are those which have been determined by the overall course of events and that if the antecedent events had been different so would the ways of knowing. This

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can be seen in terms of cross-cultural comparisons of ways of knowing (eg. the intuitive or receptive knowing of Eastern mystics versus the active knowing of Western scientists). Capra (1979) has drawn attention to the way in which these two contrasting paradigms have led to the same conclusions regarding the dynamic nature of the universe, both at the micro and macro level.

If one examines the history of science the struggle for new paradigms to gain acceptance is obvious. Kuhn's (1962) classic treatise discusses this question at length. Galileo had to be very careful about what he said because of the presence of the Spanish Inquisition, while more recently Einstein's theories on relativity lay dormant for years before eventually beginning to gain fair consideration by the scientific establishment.

The third type of paradigm is based upon a metaphysical or world view. This can be an overriding philosophical or religious view. It can be imposed from above as a value which influences the way in which the two other types of paradigms are used (eg. the implicit Judeo-Christian view of the superiority of man to other forms of life and the implicit belief that man is in some way able to manipulate the environment for his own ends). A contrary metaphysical view is to see man as an integral part of a seamless universe where everything is interdependent. The difference between these two world views produces an active (manipulative) and a receptive (observational) orientation

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to the world respectively.

A world view can also evolve as an ultimate justification (value) for the epistemology established in the first two types of paradigms, for example reductive materialism maintains that basic building blocks of matter exist waiting to be discovered through empirical research. This is sometimes referred to as utopian science (cf. Natsoulas, 1978). Such basic building blocks have continued to elude scientific discovery to this point.

A contrary metaphysical view also arising from activity within the first two types of paradigms is the phenomenological view (value) that all we can know is our subjective experience and that "objectivity" is really inter-subjectivity of the type typified by the Western scientific method (Rogers, 1963).

The causal relationship between values and ways of knowing, as has been shown, can proceed in both directions (cf. Reese & Overton, 1972). This reinforces Bixenstine's view that ultimately facts are not separable from values.

The two major metaphysical paradigms used to study personality are the Lockean (reductive, materialism) and the Kantian (holistic, phenomenological) (Rychlack, 1973). These two approaches are also referred to as realistic and idealistic. It is important to note that these two above terms do not necessarily correspond to objective and subjective. One could be an objective idealist or a subjective realist. George Kelly considered himself to be a

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realist in spite of basically idealistic perspective on the study of personality (cf. Rychlack, 1973, pp. 503-504).

Some of the major theories of personality are based upon a mixture of Kantian and Lockean models. The major psychoanalytic theorists such as Freud, Jung and Adler exemplify such an approach. The medical background of each contributed a significant deterministic influence to their thinking, however Jung was far more inclined towards the telological influences upon personality.

Behavioristically oriented theorists such as Dollard and Miller, Skinner, Wolpe, Stampfl and Sullivan exemplify the Lockean approach to personality. Notable examples of the phenomenological (Kantian model) approach to personality are Rogers, Kelly and Maslow.

C. The Nature of Determinism

An important issue for personality theorists is the extent to which behavior is determined by events external and internal to the organism. Hard-line materialists such as Skinner maintain that all behavior is determined by external events whereas others such as Jung, Maslow, and Rogers believe that there is some teleological force within mankind that exerts a causal influence upon his behavior. This dichotomy can also be related to contrasting views of the intrinsic nature of man as being savage and brutish (Hobbes) or noble and good (Rousseau). Jung's belief in the collective unconscious and archetypes confirms the extent of

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his belief in the importance of teleological factors. Freud's commitment to a psycho-sexual (life and death instincts, theory of primal horde, ontogeny recapitulating phylogeny) view of man represents his acknowledgement of the importance of biogenetic influences within the organism. He viewed the unconscious as the major aspect of man's mental life and believed it was responsible for all of man's psychical acts. This kind of internal determinism is different to the external determinism represented by the behaviorists.

Until the advent of Watsonian behaviorism Western and especially European psychology had little difficulty in accepting the dualistic view that human behavior was determined by events within and without the organism. After Watson's attack upon subjective and mentalistic psychology there was a drift towards focusing attention upon environmental causes of behavior at the expense of internal causes. The organism's behavior was seen basically as the result of environmental events.

At least lip service has been given to some of the internal influences upon behavior such as biogenetic factors in the course of the nature-nurture debate. However, it is probably true to say that teleological influences upon human behavior have been relatively unpopular in Western psychology.

A teleological perspective upon human development and self-knowledge has always been prominent in Eastern

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psychology (Tart, 1975). Personality is usually referred to as that part of a person's behavior which is learned, whereas essence is that which is intrinsic to the individual and independent of the environment. It includes, but is not entirely defined by, biogenetic factors (cf. Tart, 1975, pp. 301-321). Eastern psychologies refer to this part of man's being as his essence. Many Western psychologists have chosen to study man's being in terms of his learned behavior, for example neo-behavioral social learning theorists such as Bandura (1969), Duval and Wicklund (1972).

The study of internal organismic contributions to the development of personality by Western personality theorists has tended to concentrate upon biogenetic factors (eg. Freud, Sheldon, Eysenck). There are those such as Freud who take a dualistic position regarding psychic and physical events, unconscious and conscious behavior, inner and outer life while on the other hand more materialistically oriented personality theorists (Skinner, Wolpe, Stampfl) attempt to avoid such dualisms by taking a monistic view - all behavior is ultimately a response to external stimuli. Some Eastern psychologies have no difficulty in agreeing that the vast majority of human behavior is explicable in terms of automatic reactions or learned responses to the external environment. However, they posit the existence of another aspect of man's being which is sometimes called his "inner life". It is here that man's essence is to be found (Vaysse, 1978; Ouspensky, 1949).

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D. Teleological Theories of Personality

Teleology is "the doctrine that phenomena are guided not only by mechanical forces but that they also move toward certain goals of self-realization" (Random House Dictionary of English Language, 1973). The Eastern psychological orientation to the study of man (eg. Sufism, Buddhism, Gurdjieffian ideas; see Tart, 1975) as mentioned above is based upon a teleological view. However, such an approach to the study of man has been relatively unpopular in the West. The most significant early personality theorist to take a teleological viewpoint was Carl Jung. The climax of the teleological process in man's personal evolution for him is the achievement of self-realization. This is a state where all the bipolarities within man's personality are resolved within a unity. This unity is the archetypal self. The resolution of opposites in Jung's self-realization is similar to the notions of Yin and Yang in Taoism, and ego-transcendance in Buddhism.

Eastern traditions see the struggle for personal evolution as a dynamic (non-static) ongoing process which continues until death. Jung's conceptualization of personality development in a similar way explains why his theory of human development is so protracted eg. his positive valuation of the onset of middle age.

Another teleological theorist of personality is Carl Rogers. He believes the phenomenal field defines an

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individual's subjective reality and that the phenomenal field is organized around goals. He thus views man's behavior as goal-oriented and purposeful. Rogers believes man possesses a spontaneous organismic actualizing tendency. His client-centered therapy comes from his belief that the client unfolds something that is present within him (Rogers, 1951).

E. Maslow's Approach to Personality

Another major teleological personality theorist is Abraham Maslow. His ideas about human nature were influenced by the Existentialist stress on man's making his life by the choices he makes. He borrowed the Existentialist's stress upon ontology through the development of personal essence and decision making. His approach to the study of personality also stresses the phenomenology of personal experience. The Existential emphasis upon actuality and potentiality appealed to Maslow who was interested in exploring the deep essential forces within man rather than just overt behaviors. His concern was the uncovering and evolution of the authentic person. Maslow's approach to personality diverged from the classical approach in that he attempted to study the healthy creative fully functioning person. Prior to Maslow, Western psychology consisted largely of either Freudian psychoanalysis or experimental-positivistic behaviorism. The Freudians concentrated on the neurotic or psychotic individuals while

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the behaviorists focused on the study of averages rather than the well-developed personality.

When Maslow began his classic study of personality there was no literature on the normal or healthy personality (Shostrom, 1977). Maslow's study was undertaken to supply a firmer foundation for a comprehensive approach to defining the criteria of healthy and pathological behavior. Maslow developed a comprehensive theory of human nature as an alternative to the disease model which had persisted up to that time. His theory included internal or intrinsic determinants of behavior as well as extrinsic or environmental determinants. Maslow's data were gathered through twelve years of psychotherapeutic work and research and twenty years of personality study (Maslow, 1968). Maslow's original study used the best human beings he could find. He selected from among personal acquaintances and friends, public and historical figures, people that seemed to be fulfilling themselves and doing the best they could with their lives. The self-actualizing people of the type Maslow studied were a tiny percentage of the total population, a fraction of one percent (Goble, 1975).

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The concept of self-actualization

Maslow developed his conceptualization of SA through the study of phenomenal experience and subjective knowledge rather than from a priori concepts, theories or systems. He compiled empirical descriptions of his subjects' behaviors.

His definition of growth and the concept of SA emerged from this basis. Presently, insufficient is known about personal growth to define it well. The terms growth, individuation, autonomy, SA, self-development, productiveness and self-realization are roughly synonymous, designating a vaguely perceived area rather than a sharply defined concept (Maslow, 1968, p. 24). Maslow believes that meaning can be indicated rather than defined, partly by positive pointing, partly by negative contrast, i.e. what SA is not. For example; it is not the same as equilibrium, homeostasis, tension-reduction etc. (Maslow, 1968, p. 24). Maslow (1968) defines the term SA as:

> A much better term is "self-actualization" as I have used it. It stresses "full-humanness", - the development of the biologically based nature of man, and therefore is (empirically) normative for the whole species rather than for particular times and places, i.e., it is less culturally relative. It conforms to biological destiny, rather than to historically-arbitrary, culturally-local value-models as the terms "health" and "illness" often do. It also has empirical content and operational meaning, (p. vi).

The concept of SA appears to be an intervening variable in the MacCorquodale and Meehl (1948) sense in that it is a summation of a number of empirical antecedents. It is an abstraction having no independent existence of its own, being defined entirely in terms of personality characteristics found in self-actualizing people. It is a disjunctive concept, in that a person does not need to have all the attributes of a self-actualizing person in order to be self-actualized.

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The dynamics of self-actualization

Maslow believes that man possesses a biologically based nature or essence, which is concerned with the gratification of certain needs. This inner nature is both species-wide and unique to the individual. It is good or neutral rather than bad or evil. It is not strong and overpowering like instincts but rather weak, delicate and subtle. It is easily overcome by habit, cultural pressure and wrong attitudes toward it. Although it is weak, it rarely disappears in the normal person, but rather persists, pressing for actualization. The suppression of this essential core of a person leads to sickness either in subtle or obvious ways (Maslow, 1968, pp. 3-4).

Maslow believes man is motivated by two processes simultaneously: the need to survive and the need to actualize or grow. He differentiates between basic (safety and survival) needs and metaneeds (growth, actualizing) as a consequence of the clinical perception of qualitative differences between the motivational lives of self-actualizers and of other people (Maslow, 1968, p. 27).

The basic needs are deficiency needs and have a hierarchial structure. Higher needs emerge only when the more prepotent lower needs have been satisfied. These needs are species-wide, apparently genetic or instinctual in origin (Goble, 1975, p. 38). They are largely psychological rather than physiological. All the basic needs are steps along the path to SA. They may be treated as both ends and

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as steps towards the goal of SA.

The characteristics of a basic need are (Maslow, 1968, p. 22):

1. its absence breeds illness,
2. its presence prevents illness,
3. its restoration cures illness,
4. under certain, very complex, free-choice situations it is preferred by the deprived person over other satisfactions,
5. is is found to be inactive, at a low ebb, or functionally absent in the healthy person.

Maslow (1968) has identified man's basic needs: (1) physiological (food, liquid, oxygen, sleep, shelter, sex, (2) safety and security needs, (3) love and belongingness, and (4) self esteem, and esteem by others. Generally speaking, these needs have to be met before growth needs can become operative (Maslow, 1968, p. 25). Maslow felt that in order for an individual to self-actualize he must be sufficiently free of illness, be sufficiently gratified in basic needs, be positively using his capacities and also be motivated by some values for which he strives (Goble, 1975, p. 63).

Basic needs and growth needs are not in conflict. The former is a necessary prerequisite for the latter. Man is initially motivated by a series of basic needs and as these are satisfied he moves towards the satisfaction of higher

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needs. Maslow refers to this as metamotivation. The higher needs are growth needs (Being-values, or B-values) in contrast to the basic or deficiency needs.

Growth needs are not hierarchical like basic needs. They all have equal importance. Maslow found they could not be fully separated from one another. They are interrelated as facets of Being rather than distinct parts of it (eg. truth, goodness and beauty: Maslow, 1968, p. 84).

Some of the important differences between deficiency needs and growth needs are that deficiency needs can be satisfied at least temporarily (equilibrium) while growth needs are dynamic and ongoing - growth needs satisfaction leads to more growth needs. The fact that growth itself is rewarding gives life a present centered emphasis. Satisfying deficiencies avoid illness while satisfying growth needs promotes good health. Growth patterns are idiosyncratic unlike the species wide operation of deficiency needs.

Growth motivated behavior tends to be self directed and purposeful while deficiency motivated behavior tends to be reactive. The growth motivated person tends to see others as holistic objects rather than a means to deficiency need gratification. There is a tendency towards ego transcendence associated with this orientation to the world. The individual is less inclined to have his perceptions distorted by his own deficiency needs.

Paradoxically perhaps the self-actualized person has less need of love but is able to give more love. This is

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characterized as the difference between Being-love and deficiency-love. The characteristics of Being-love are contained in appendix A.

Self-actualization is a dynamic struggle between safety and growth needs. All choices between these two poles are "right" and occur spontaneously as a consequence of natural wisdom. Growth can be promoted by enhancing its attractions and minimizing its dangers whilst simultaneously enhancing the dangers and minimizing the attractions of security needs. There is a natural need to know ourselves as well as a fear of self knowledge which is at the center of self-actualization.

F. The Self-Actualizing Person

A self-actualizing person may be described as "one who utilizes his talents and capabilities more fully, lives in the present rather than dwelling on the past or future, functions relatively autonomously and tends to have a more benevolent outlook on life and on human nature than the average person" (Knapp, 1971, p. 1). Self-actualization is a dynamic process, active throughout life versus a final state of affairs, a far goal.

Maslow has defined these healthy individuals by describing their clinically observed characteristics (Maslow, 1968, p. 26). These are:

1. Superior perception of reality.
2. Increased acceptance of self, of others and of

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nature.

3. Increased spontaneity.
4. Increase in problem-centering.
5. Increased detachment and desire for privacy.
6. Increased autonomy, and resistance to enculturation.
7. Greater freshness of appreciation, and richness of emotioned reaction.
8. Higher frequency of peak experiences.
9. Increased identification with the human species.
10. Changed (improved) interpersonal relations.
11. More democratic character structure.
12. Greatly increased creativeness.
13. Certain changes in the value system.

Maslow found that the most common and universal characteristic of the self-actualized person was his superior perception of reality. These people have a nonjudgmental type of perception which is passive and receptive. They have an ability to see things clearly, to see things as they are rather than as they wish things to be. Their perceptions are less distorted by desires, anxieties and fears. Their superior perception leads to a better understanding of self and others. The superior quality of their perceptions enable them to see wholes rather than polarities and avoid unnecessary value judgments.

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G. The Personal Orientation Inventory

The major instrument used to measure SA is the POI (Shostrom 1962, 1974). Although largely based on the ideas of Maslow (1962, 1970) discussed previously, the scales reflect the ideas of other prominent psychologists in the Humanistic, Existential and Gestalt, schools of therapy. Riesman, Glazer and Dennys (1950) system of inner and other-directedness; May, Angels and Ellenberger's (1958), and Perls (1947, 1951) conceptualization of time orientation are manifested in the scale as well as Bach and Goldberg's (1974) theories of acceptance of aggression. Theoretically the POI is a hybrid, rather than a pure representation of Maslow's ideas. This needs to be considered when evaluating data pertaining to the construct validity of SA.

The concepts measured by the POI reflect an actualizing model that has been described as fast replacing the medical model for most counselors and therapists (Shostrom, 1972, 1973; Shostrom, Knapp, & Knapp, 1976). As noted in the EDITS POI Manual (Shostrom, 1974) and the Handbook for the POI (Knapp, 1976) a number of authors in the humanistic area have contended that the self-actualizing individual is the goal of the psychotherapeutic process. Many counselors and therapists have felt the need for a comprehensive objective measure of values and behavior that are important in the development of the self-actualizing person.

Since its publication in 1963 the POI has simulated a great deal of empirical research aimed at verifying the

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component constructs of SA. The study of SA has moved away from a phenomenological to an empirical science. In describing this shift Maslow (1971) stated:

> "In studying healthy people, self-actualizing people, etc., there has been a steady move from the openly normative and the frankly personal, step by step, toward more and more descriptive, objective words, to the point where there is today a standardized test of self-actualization. Self-actualization can now be defined quite operationally as intelligence used to be defined, i.e., self-actualization is what the test test. It correlates well with external variables of various kinds and keeps on accumulating additional correlational meanings" (p. 28).

Description of the POI

The POI consists of 150 two-choice comparative value-judgement items reflecting values and behavior seen to be of importance in the development of self-actualizing persons. There are 12 scales, 2 major scales and 10 subscales, which are used in comparing the subjects responses to normative samples. The range in the number of items per scale varies from 9 to 127.

The two major scales of the POI are the inner directed support scale (I) and the time competence scale (Tc). The inner directed support radio consists of 127 items and reflects independence in proportion to dependence. This scale is designed to measure whether an individual's mode of reaction is characteristically "self" oriented or "other" oriented. Autonomy is seen as a balance between other directedness (O) and inner directedness (I). The other major scale includes 23 items and defines a time ratio. The time

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ratio measure the degree to which the individual lives in the present as contrasted with the past or future. The time competent person is oriented to the present and is able to bring past experiences and future expectations into meaningful continuity.

Scores on each of the ten minor subscales are intended to reflect a facet important in the development of the self-actualizing person. These are: self-actualizing value (SAV), existentiality (EX), feeling reactivity (Fr), spontaneity (S), self-regard (Sr), self-acceptance (Sa), nature of man (Nc), synergy (Sy), acceptance of aggression (A), and capacity for intimate contact (C). Detailed descriptions of the concepts measured by the subscales are to be found in appendix B.

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H. Validity and Reliability of the POI

The validity of the POI will be reviewed in accordance with its specific uses as suggested by Anastasi.

> "The validity of a test cannot be reported in general terms. No test can be said to have 'high' or 'low' validity in the abstract. Its validity must be determined with reference to the particular use for which it is being considered" (Anastasi, 1965, p. 135).

It needs to be born in mind that the construct validity of the POI has evolved as a result of the general accumulation of data from its widespread application for a variety of purposes in a kind of bootstrap fashion rather than a carefully designed psychometric procedure.

Concurrent validity

The initial basis for the validity of the instrument rests upon a number of studies which demonstrated its ability to discriminate between clinically nominated self-actualizing and non-self-actualizing individuals (Shostrom, 1964); nominated self-actualizing and normal adult samples and hospitalized psychiatric patients (Fox, 1965; Fox, Knapp & Michael, 1968). Shostrom and Knapp (1966) found that the POI scales significantly differentiated beginning out-patients from advanced out-patients in terms of psychotherapeutic progress.

Counseling studies

Another major source of concurrent validity of the POI, of particular interest to this study, is the accumulation of studies which have examined the relationship between SA and the counseling process. McClain (1970) found significant correlations between clinical ratings of SA of guidance counselors and POI scores ranging from .23 to .69 (I scale). McClain concluded that the POI differentiates degrees of self-actualizing among normal adults. The significance of this study is the ability of the instrument to detect individual differences within normal as well as abnormal populations (as reported earlier). Failure to do this would have cast serious doubt upon the validity of the construct of SA. Jansen and Garvey (1973) found that ratings of counselor effectiveness among a sample of 88 clergymen

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correlated significantly with POI scores. The POI scores of highly rated clergymen were above the adult norm sample but below the nominated self-actualizing sample. The POI scores of low rated clergymen were generally lower than the nominated self-actualizing sample.

In a related study Jansen and Garvey (1974) found that clergymen rated high on clinical competency had higher SA scores than less competent clergymen but were somewhat more rigid and dogmatic than the average adult. Time competence was the most significant correlate of counselor effectiveness in these two studies.

Foulds (1969a, 1969b, 1969c) found a positive relationship between a counselor's ability to manifest empathic understanding, respect and facilitative genuineness with clients and counselors level of SA as measured by the POI scales. Further evidence of the concurrent validity of the POI comes from a study by Weinrack and Knapp (1976) who found significant positive correlations between guidance counseling effectiveness and Tc and S scores of the counselors.

Similar support for the concurrent validity of the POI comes from studies which have shown a positive relationship between dormatory-assistant effectiveness, as measured by ratings of students and deans, and POI scales (Graff & Bradshaw, 1970; Graff, Bradshaw, Danish, Austin, & Altekruse, 1970). Tapp and Spanier (1973) also found a significant positive correlation between POI scales and

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those college students volunteering to work as telephone counselors in a Suicide Prevention Agency.

Jeffery (1974) found a significant positive correlation between Tc and rehabilitation counselor effectiveness. Selfridge and Vander Kolk (1976) also found a significant relationship between the level of counselor SA, as measured by the POI, and client perceived facilitativeness. Melchers (1972) found significant differences between 'more' and 'less' effective counselors on the I and SAV scales.

On the basis of the studies reviewed above there appears to be solid evidence for a significant relationship between counselor effectiveness and SA, especially as measured by the Tc scale and perhaps S and SAV.

Some research on the relationships between the POI and counselor effectiveness has failed to support a significant positive relationship. Williams (1972) failed to find a significant relationship between POI scales and counselor effectiveness as measured by video ratings. Using the Carkhuff Scales of empathy, respect and genuineness, Atkinson, Williams and Garb (1973) also failed to find a significant relationship between POI scales and perceived resident assistant effectiveness. Zurfleuh (1974) failed to find a significant relationship between the POI and counselor effectiveness. Although the above studies failed to support a significant positive relationship between the POI and counselor effectiveness they also failed to produce any evidence of a significant negative relationship between

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these two variables. All the significant findings support the positive relationship between counselor effectiveness and SA.

Construct Validity

Anastasi (1965) defines construct validity as

> "the extent to which the test may be said to measure a 'theoretical construct' or 'trait . . . focusing on broader, more enduring, and more abstract kind of behavioral description . . . construct validation requires the gradual accumulation of information from a variety of sources. Any data throwing light on the nature of the trait under consideration and the conditions affecting its development and manifestations are grist for this validity mill" (pp. 145-146).

The construct validity of the POI continues to be supported by the accumulation of evidence of its relationship with other external measures. As a result Maslow (1971) stated

> "I feel heuristically justified in starting with my 'determined naivite'. Most of what I was able to see intuitively, directly, personally, is being confirmed now with numbers, tables and curves" (p. 28).

Early support for the construct validity of the POI came from a study by Knapp (1965) which showed the some POI scale measures were significantly related to neuroticism as measured by the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1963). Further support comes from the data of Shostrom and Knapp (1966) which showed that the POI was negatively related to measures of psychopathology derived from the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI).

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Shostrom and Knapp (1966) found that the POI scales correlated negatively with the MMPI scales of depression, psychasthenia and social introversion. The high self-actualizer emerged as "gregarious, out-going, sociable, enthusiastic, assertive, talkative, and adept at interpersonal manipulation" (cf. Oakland, Freed, Lovekin, Davis & Camilleri, 1978). This contrasts sharply with the description of a self-actualizer provided by Maslow (1970, p. 166). This situation casts some doubt on the construct validity of the POI.

Knapp and Comrey (1973) also found a strong relationship between emotional stability as measured by the Comrey Personality Scales (CPS; Comrey, 1970) and SA. Mattocks and Jew (1974) found a positive relationship between SA and the concept of "well adjusted person" as defined by the Dymond (1954) Q-Sort Adjustment Scale. Hekmat and Theiss (1971) obtained data which supported the implication of Maslow's SA theory that high self-actualizers are less conditionable than low self-actualizers. The data support Maslow's assertion that high self-actualizers are "resistant to enculturation". A major implication of this research is that for a more self-actualized individual locus of reinforcement during psychotherapy shifts from the therapist to the client. The therapist functions as a model rather than as a dispenser of reinforcement.

In a conceptually related study Crosson and Schwendiman (1972) obtained results which moderately supported the

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hypothesis of a negative relationship between SA and conformity. The major problem with this study was the scarcity of high self-actualizers in the sample. Doyle (1975) also found significant positive correlations between POI scales and a measure of field-independent perceptual style. However, Zimmerman, Smith, and Pedersen (1970) obtained low but positive correlations between POI scales and a measure of conformity.

The equivocal nature of the findings regarding the relationship between conformity and SA leave in doubt the validity of this particular aspect of the construct of SA. A possible explanation for these inconsistent findings is the relative scarcity of self-actualized subjects in college samples.

The educational implication from Maslow's theory of SA that the satisfaction of security needs leads to greater self-actualization and hence greater academic achievement has generally been supported (Johns, 1970; Leib & Snyder, 1967; LeMay & Damm, 1968; Pearson, 1966; Stewart, 1968; Weber, 1970). Generally these relationships were of modest magnitude. Leib and Snyder (1968) suggest that SA and intellectual ability are not directly related. This needs to be taken into account when interpreting the relationship between SA and achievement.

The relationships between Actualizing Therapy (Shostrom, Knapp & Knapp, 1976) and the therapeutic systems of Rogers, Ellis and Perls have also been explicated. Morris

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(cited in Knapp, 1976) found a significant negative correlations between POI scales and the total Irrational Ideas Score (based upon the Self Theory of Carl Rogers and the Rational-Emotive Theory of Albert Ellis). Phillips, Watkins and Noll (1974) found that pattern of correlations between POI scales and the Purpose In Life Test (Crumbaugh & Maholick, 1969), which reflects the Self-Transcendence Theory of Frankl (1966), were consistent with expectation based upon the similarities and differences in the theoretical perspectives of the two instruments.

Conceptual overlap between Rotter's (1966) locus of control and the POI's I and O scales as a measure of personal adjustment has been examined in a number of studies. Wareheim and Foulds (1971) obtained moderate correlations between the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control (IE Scale) and Sr, Tc and the Nc scales of the POI. However, Lovekin (1972) failed to find evidence of a correlation between POI scales and IE scale. The above studies, at best, offer equivocal support for the expected relationship between the IE scale and the POI.

Meredith (1967) obtained correlations ranging to .48 below the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey (Guilford-Zimmerman, 1949) and the POI Sr scale. He also obtained correlations of up to .44 between the Sixteen-Personality Questionnaire (16PF; Cattel & Eber, 1957) and subscales of the POI. Overall the correlations between the subscales of the POI and these two instruments

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are modest. This may be because these instruments measure different aspects of personality.

The conceptual overlap between the POI and factorial measures of emotional stability (EPI, 16PF, Comery Scales, Guilford-Zimmerman) is most clearly focused in their relationship with the Sr subscale of the POI. The following subscales of the POI showed little correlation with factorial measures of emotional stability (Fr, S, Sa, Sy and C).

There is some overlap between items from different subscales of the POI. However, the concepts measured by the scales are not intended to be othogonal. The scales are intended to maximize "convergent validity" and "interpretive usefulness" rather than "homogeneity" and "factorial purity" (Knapp, 1976, p. 88). The POI nevertheless compares favorably to scales in terms of median intercorrelations of subscales with other tests (16PF, .14; Comrey Personality Scales, .15; Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey, .23). Intercorrelations of items on the EPI approach zero only after a three factor solution (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975). Attempts to improve the internal consistency and orthogonality of the POI have not increased the effectiveness of the instrument (Silverstein & Fisher, 1974; Knapp & Fitzgerald, 1973; Lorr & Knapp, 1974). Knapp (1976) concludes that "little is to be gained from attempts to restructure scoring of this particular instrument". The POI does not lend itself to factor analytic procedures for the

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following reasons, summarized by Guilford (1952) and cited by Knapp (1976, p. 89):

(a) the failure to isolate a common factor due to its being represented in only one experimental variable, thus ignoring Thurston's (1947) admonition that at least three variables are necessary to determine a single common factor;

(b) the use of spurious correlations based on correlations between linearly dependent variables, such as scale scores in which the same items are scored for more than one trait variable;

(c) the use of correlations based on ipsative scores; and

(d) the use of heterogeneous samples.

As Knapp (1976) points out, changes in the POI subscales based upon factor analysis have not generated increased validity which is the ultimate aim of such manipulations.

Problems with construct validity

A recent critique of the POI (Oakland et al., 1978) reviewed some of its weaknesses. These authors claim there is a discrepancy between the scale and the characteristics of SA as described by Maslow (eg. it fails to sample the ethical component of SA or cognitive efficiency). The complaint is that the scale is loosely tied to theoretical

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constructs.

The charge is also made that the scale is more like a collection of overlapping scales which measure the general construct of "healthy personality". Perhaps a refinement of the scale would lead to a theoretically tighter instrument with fewer scales.

Oakland et al., (1978) also note that what Maslow intended by "self-actualized" is perhaps not what the POI measures when "39 patients in advanced stages of the psychotherapeutic process produce a highly self-actualized profile" (Shostrom & Knapp, 1966).

The POI suffers from overlapping items so that one item change can produce a change of one standard deviation in profile score (i.e. Sy scale). Also four items on the Sy scale are also scored on the sixteen item Nc scale. It is usual for an item to influence scoring on three of the twelve scales (Oakland et al., 1978).

Some items are ambiguous or use jargon or obscure language. Some of the forced choices are not mutually exclusive. These problems need to be alleviated if the POI is to become a sharper rather than a blunt instrument.

Age related trends

Maslow's conception of self-actualizing peaks being reached in mature years results in the problem of lower profiles for younger samples. In other words, SA should positively correlate with age. There is limited evidence

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available on this issue. Two studies support this trend (Jansen, cited in Knapp, 1976; Rizzo & Vinacke, 1973) while one does not (Greely, cited in Knapp, 1976). There is a need for more research to clarify the relationship between age, SA and other interacting variables.

Faking

Knapp (1976) reviews the research on faking responses to the POI. In general the instrument is fairly resistant to faking. The vast majority of people have a T standard score of between 50 and 60. Attempts to fake-good in terms of social desirability generally result in a depressed POI profile while attempts to fake-good based upon an intellectual knowledge of the underlying theoretical concepts results in a hyper-elevated profile. The additional clinical data arising out of faking makes the POI more useful than other instruments with a specifically designed lie-scale - at least two types of liars can be detected.

The relation between POI profiles and faking still needs more work. There may be curvilinear relationship between POI scores and SA rather than linear for sophisticated subjects (eg. how do we know for sure that a sophisticated subject who knows the concepts of SA is/is not faking?) The POI assumes a linear relationship between SA and POI scores. Also do differences in pre-post POI scores following therapy reflect a genuine change in SA or increased sophistication?

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Reliability

Because the POI is designed to be sensitive to process changes in personality over short intervals of time, measures of temporal stability are inappropriate. Nevertheless, estimates of temporal stability have been obtained in a number of studies. Klavetter and Mogar (1967) reported reliability coefficients for a one week test-retest study ranging from .52 to .82 with a median of .71. Illardi and May (1968) reported test-retest reliability coefficients over a fifty week period ranging from .32 to .74 with a median of .58. Kay, Lions, Newmand and Mankine (1978), administered the POI once a year for three successive years in an attempt to access temporal stability. Correlations ranged from .03 to .77 with a median of .53. The following scales had coefficients which were low enough to seriously question their validity (Sy, Sr and Nc) the remaining scales were comparable in terms of reliability, to the coefficients obtained by Illardi and May (1968). Wise and Davis (1975) report test-retest coefficients of .75 and .88 for Tc and I scales respectively.

Lafferty (cited in Knapp, 1976) obtained profile consistency between samples from the same populations while the study of Kay et al., (1978) did not.

Kaats (cited in Knapp, 1976) using Cromback's alpha as a measure of internal consistency reported coefficients of .80 for I and .65 for Tc.

In spite of the fact that the design of the POI is

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antithetical to temporal stability evidence suggests that the instrument has "acceptable" temporal stability and internal consistency. More research is needed before an unequivocal assessment can be made of the instrument's reliability. High reliability is needed if genuine change is to be measured rather than artifact. Because of the problem of obtaining measures of temporal stability it may be desirable to concentrate upon measures of internal consistency as an index of reliability.

I. The Nature of the Relationship Between Clinical Experience and Self-Actualization

Few clinicians would deny the assertion that clinical experience can generally facilitate the personal growth of the therapist. The longest tradition in psychotherapy (psychoanalysis) has always stressed the need for the therapist to undergo psychoanalysis before becoming a practitioner (Freud, 1964; Jung, 1965). Carl Rogers (1959) explicitly describes the reciprocal relationship between client and therapist in terms of mutual growth.

Jung also realized the mutual dependency of therapist and client within analytical therapy. "In Jung's consulting room both he and patient sat opposite each other as two human beings joined in mutual consultation over an interdependent problem directed to a resolution important to both" (Van der Post, 1977, p. 120). Jung believed that even the most disturbed patients reflected fundamental aspects of

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psychiatrists themselves. Equality of client and therapist was expressed in their right to a particular interpretation or point of view (Rychlak, 1973, p. 190).

The esoteric maxim "man is a microcosm of the universe" comes from Eastern mystical traditions (eg. Yoga) which stress the importance of self knowledge and self understanding as a fundamental prerequisite for understanding other people and the world in general. The individual is encouraged to avoid the separation caused by and artificial distinction between the observed and the observer. The relationship between therapist and client can be seen as part of a seamless unity. This influence is manifested in Western psychology within the context of Humanistic and Holistic psychotherapies. The fact that most people who go into clinical psychology do so as part of their own search for personal meaning and growth has also been discussed (Davis & Marks, 1972). The "Projective Hypothesis" leads one to expect that this be the case. This is compatible with the notion that the individual's search for personal meaning necessarily involves his/her relations with others as part of his/her perspective on the world. The metaphor of the hologram in which every part manifests the characteristics of the whole is another way of conceptualizing this situation (Pribram, 1971; Bohm, 1973).

Rogers (1959) suggests that the therapist by manifesting self-acceptance and congruence provides a model for the client. It seems obvious that a therapist whose

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personal growth was progressing would be better able to do this and that attempts to relate openly to the client would challenge and facilitate the growth of both. Almost any therapy that allows the client to deliver feedback to the therapist about his/her person and behavior probably has a propensity for facilitating the growth of the therapist (eg. analytical, Rogerian and Gestalt therapies).

Perhaps the basis for genuine empathy is understanding. There is no substitute for an understanding that is based upon personal experience. When one "sees" oneself one cannot avoid seeing oneself in others and vice versa. The realization that therapist and client alike share many of the difficulties of human existence (eg. need to feel secure; to love and be loved), when it is based upon the therapist's personal experience rather than just intellectual knowledge, results in a fundamentally different attitude towards other people. A therapist with this attitude realizes the mutual dependency that exists between herself and her client.

Differences are quantitative rather than qualitative. To some extent this attitude is exemplified in Watzlawick's comment that the most dangerous delusion of all is - "the belief that one's own view of reality is the only reality" (Watzlawick, 1976, p. xiii). The intimate connection between self and other, and education and therapy is captured by Roger's (1969) belief that "to my mind the 'best' of education would produce a person very similar to the one

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produced by the 'best' of therapy" (p. 279).

Few studies appear to have examined the value of a counseling practicum in promoting SA and none have attempted to investigate how specific activities occurring within a counseling practicum may enhance SA. Melchers (1972) compared forty nine graduate students enrolled in a counseling practicum with forty five graduate students registered in regular classes within the Psychology Department at The University of Northern Colorado. The POI was administered twice, three months apart, to both groups. He found that most students enrolled in the counseling practicum experienced greater growth in SA than most students enrolled in the regular classes. Scores for the practicum students were significantly higher at the .05 level for I, Ex and Fr.

The practicum students also scored significantly higher at the .10 level for the C scale. Over the three month period those enrolled in the counseling practicum showed a significant increase in SA on the scales of Tc, I, and S. They also experienced growth in Fr and C at the .10 level. In a similar study, Anderson (1970) found that those students involved in a counseling practicum experience made significant positive gains towards SA. Neither of these two studies was published.

Naar (1974) found that students enrolled in a counseling skills program which included mock therapy, didactic sessions, review of taped sessions, exercises

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borrowed from psychodrama and encounter groups showed significant increases in all POI subscales except Sa and C ($p<.05$).

In a related study Bonk, Knapp and Michael (1978), using the Personal Orientation Dimension [developed from the POI by Shostrom (1975)] found that school counseling trainees showed a significant increase in 4 of the 13 subscales ($p<.05$) at the conclusion of a training course. They showed an increase in present centeredness, trusting their inner feelings, experiencing and expressing a personal sense of worth and a constructive view of humanity.

J. The Practicum Program of Department of Educational Psychology, University of Alberta

Educational Psychology 512 (EP 512) is the basic practicum required of all graduate students enrolled in the counseling program in the Department of Educational Psychology, University of Alberta. The objectives of EP 512 are not explicitly documented. The emphasis is upon the teaching of techniques and counseling skills while the issue of personal growth of trainee counselors in terms of self-awareness and SA is not explicitly acknowledged as a fundamental focus of the training program. This thesis affirms the crucial importance of such a dimension being explicitly included in a complete counseling program. The arguments for this point of view have been made earlier.

EP 512 includes lectures, workshops, seminars,

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practicum placement and supervision. The lectures take up four hours per week and deal with specific skills enabling counselors in training to move quickly to their practicum placements. The students are exposed to a variety of theoretical perspectives and clinical techniques in the counseling area. Most of the teaching staff in the area of Counseling and School Psychology are actively involved in this program as guest lecturers.

A variety of three-hour workshops are held weekly providing the students with practical experience (eg. vocational counseling, play therapy, biofeedback, and hypnosis and relaxation). Occasional optional weekend workshops, such as a Transactional Analysis Script Workshop, are also offered. Methods here include didactic sessions, mock therapy sessions, feedback from students playing the role of clients, review of taped sessions and various self-awareness exercises.

Another important part of the EP 512 experience is the seminar program. Early in the year the students are divided into smaller interest groups which meet weekly for one and a half hours. The seminar leaders work closely with students assessing videotapes, answering questions about various types of counseling situations, and dealing with problems as they arise in the course. The seminars are also an opportunity for peer consultation and peer support. Students in EP 512 also participate in a practicum placement. The time commitment for this field placement is a minimum of one

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half day per week. Generally students are assigned to the counseling centre, Educational Faculty, for half of their practicum experience, and are assigned a field placement elsewhere in the city for the other term. Students are asked early in the year about placement preferences and every effort is made to honor student requests. Examples of this external student placements include: Edmonton Public Schools, Edmonton Separate Schools, Family Court Conciliation Service, Youth Development Centre, Leduc Counseling Clinic, Alberta Vocational Centre, Westfield Treatment Centre, etc.

In addition to this field placement, at least one hour per week is spent in supervision. Supervision within the Clinic is handled by staff members in the Department of Educational Psychology while for practicum placements outside the Clinic, practising counselors and psychologists are invited to supervise students. Supervision includes case discussion, audio and videotape analysis.

Self-actualization or personal growth is largely implicit in the Ed. Psy. 512 practicum via seminars, workshops and supervision. The occasional specific statement is made such as "Often times in our seminar program the interpersonal relationships among staff and students are as important as the structured learning experience" (Ed. Psy. 512 Course Outline, 1978). The information contained in this section is based upon my personal experience in EP 512 and also upon interviews with staff members actively involved

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with EP 512.

K. Ways in Which the Educational Psychology 512 Practicum May Facilitate SA

Although little explicit record is available regarding the facilitation of SA as an objective of EP 512 the possibility exists that such a process occurs as an artifact of the counseling program at the University of Alberta. Available evidence, cited previously (Foulds, 1969a, 1969b, 1969c; Graff & Bradshaw, 1970; Graff, Bradshaw, Danish & Altekruse, 1970; Jansen & Garvey, 1973, 1974; Jeffery, 1974; MacLean, 1970; Melchers, 1972; Selfridge & Vanderkolk, 1976; Weinrack & Knapp, 1976) suggests the likelihood of an association between SA and the expression of various counseling qualities such as empathy, positive regard and facilitative genuineness. The remainder of this section attempts to explicate the way in which Ep 512 may facilitate these and other desirable qualities of an effective counselor and ultimately SA.

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Theory and micro-skills

Generally the first counseling theory that the EP 512 students encounter is that of Carl Rogers. Thus the student is exposed to a constructive view of people, that is, people are seen as essentially good. A student who believes people are essentially good and can resolve the good-evil, masculine-feminine, selfish-unselfish dichotomies in the

nature of people may score high on the Nc and Sy scales. The descriptions of the scales of the POI referred to in this section are to be found in appendix B and are not repeated here for reasons of economy.

Exposure to Roger's client-centered therapy means that student counselors don't have to be an authority, or to feel they have to have all the answers and perhaps become "rescuers". Thus the trainees may admit and accept the fact that they do not have all the answers and may accept their weaknesses and deficiencies as therapists. This may lead to an elevated Sa score.

Later in the term, the EP 512 students are systematically exposed to alternative counseling systems and learn to apply principles from several of these systems to counseling practice. Exposure to several systems may lead to higher Ex scores.

The goal of EP 512 is not to produce counselors specifically cast in the die of Rogers, Skinner, Ellis or Adler, but rather to encourage students to develop their own counseling style. The emphasis is upon being authentic. This freedom to be oneself may lead to elevated S, Sa and Sr scores.

Early in the program EP 512 students are taught "micro-skills" which include empathic understanding, respect or positive regard and facilitative genuineness. These skills are taught via role playing of the therapist and client roles. Students get feedback from the "client", peers

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and supervisor. Students trained in these facilitative therapeutic conditions may score higher on Fr, S, Tc, Sr, Sa, and A scales. Trainees utilizing these skills are more likely to develop a warm interpersonal relationship with their clients which may increase C scores.

Counseling practicum

Within the first few weeks the EP 512 students are expected to take part in a field experience. This early contact with clients throws the trainees into the breach immediately where they have to get in touch with themselves as they currently are rather than fall back upon a possible repertoire of intellectually learned techniques. This taste of action quickly gives trainees a chance to assess the relationship between their expectations and the reality of counseling. This kind of experience may lead to an increase in S and may also result in the trainees learning to live with uncertainty and becoming more present-centered, and thereby may increase Tc. The students may learn to tolerate more and see the relationships of opposites in a meaningful way, increasing Sy.

Being placed in a "helper" role may emhance the trainee's feelings of self-regard and self-acceptance. By helping others one helps oneself. The acceptance of others presupposes the trainees' acceptance of themselves.

Clinical experience may lead to self knowledge in that students may "see" themselves reflected in their clients.

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They may learn to cope with their client's unpredictable emotional states as well as their own. They may begin to discover their own fears and inadequacies. The reciprocal relationship between client and therapist may contribute to the student counselors' own growth as well as that of their clients. Clinical experience may lead to an increase in "objective" observations of both self and others. The trainees may become better judges of people or perhaps learn to suspend judgement and be suspicious of their own perceptions. By learning to avoid premature conclusions and identify their own biases the trainees may appreciate the need to allow a picture of the counselor-client relationship to develop and crystalize spontaneously. The emphasis is upon seeing what is there and what is happening rather than the counselors projecting their own expectations and biases into their perceptions of themselves and their clients. This type of experience may lead to an increase in Sy, C, S, Ex and Tc.

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The facilitation of self-awareness

The various activities and aspects of the program which may lead to an increase in SA depend largely upon the growth of self-awareness in the trainee. Lack of awareness of what is happening, intellectually, emotionally and physically for both client and counselor, by the counselor obviously makes it difficult to achieve the conditions described above.

Within the counseling program at the University of

Alberta the following elements can be construed as facilitating self-awareness and possibly a higher level of SA and counselor effectiveness.

EP 512 students are expected to videotape their sessions with clients. This offers trainees an excellent opportunity for self-observation. It allows them to "step outside themselves" and perhaps see themselves as others see them. Trainees may become aware of some of their habits (i.e. talking too much; asking questions which can be answered by yes or no rather than open ended ones; avoiding eye contact; nervous shifting of the body etc.).

The weekly seminars also offer the trainee an opportunity for self-awareness. Students' videotaped sessions with clients are often viewed in the seminars. The trainees thus get feedback about themselves and their role as counselors from both peers in the seminar and from the seminar leaders. The students may be asked to focus on their own needs or motivations during a particular segment of the videotape. They may also be asked "how do you feel when you observe yourself in this particular part of the videotape?" - thus encouraging the trainees to be both present-centered (Tc) and sensitive to their feelings (Fr). Generally the trainees get feedback on their strengths (Sr) and weaknesses (Sa).

Supervision for counselor growth

It has been suggested that practicum supervision

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simultaneously involves supervisors in paradoxical roles (Davis & Marks, 1972). Their duties include instruction (Cottle, 1973; Davis & Marks, 1972; Johnston & Gysbers, 1967; Patterson, 1964), evaluation of the student performance (Cottle, 1973; Davis & Marks, 1972; Johnston & Gysbers, 1967), and acting as counselor to the counselor trainee (Arbuckle, 1958; Davis & Marks, 1972; Patterson, 1964). An effective supervisor is one who can establish a supervisory relationship conducive to the student's personal and professional growth (Cottle, 1973). Counselor effectiveness and student growth are related (see studies of the relation between SA and counseling cited previously under the sub-heading Counseling Studies). Therefore a supervisor should pay as much attention to personal growth of the trainee as other things. The trainees are placed in a double bind, i.e., they have to cope with the conflict between being a student, client, and a therapist to their clients. These paradoxical roles create anxiety which increases until the individual experiences growth, i.e., sees the dichotomies as meangingfully related (Sy) (Davis & Marks, 1972). Supervisors who establish a warm, caring, trusting relationship with their practicum students may be more likely to motivate the students to capitalize on further training opportunities rather than cover up their deficiencies (Sa). They may help the students accept themselves with an increased knowledge of their limitations (Sa) and begin the ongoing struggle for growth with less

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anxiety. The supervisor can be an important influence upon the trainees' abilities to understand their motivations to be therapists. Trainees who understand themselves may be more likely to see their supervisor's perceptions of their counseling performance as congruent. Generally a high level of congruence between supervisor and trainee is desirable and may lead to a similar level of congruence between trainee and client. The therapeutic dimensions of the trainee - supervisor interaction may provide a model for trainee-client interactions. Such a nurturant relationship between supervisor and trainee may lead to an increase in C, Sa, Sr, A, and S.

The preceding speculations about the ways in which components of the practicum facilitate SA leave open the question of which specific components, or interactions thereof, are the most likely to facilitate SA. This is not the purpose of the present study. The practicum is considered in this study as a whole in terms of treatment effect upon SA.

L. Purposes of the Present Study

Available evidence cited earlier (see studies of the relation between SA and counseling effectiveness cited previously under the sub-heading Counseling Studies) suggests a moderately strong association between SA and counselor effectiveness. Consequently, an effective counseling program should facilitate SA. Fould's (1969a,b,c)

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studies suggest that the POI has at least good concurrent validity as reflected in correlations between POI scales and counselor effectiveness. The POI may also be a valid predictor of counselor effectiveness.

Although counselor effectiveness is not directly assessed by this study, some implications about the ability of the counseling program under examination can be drawn using SA as a predictor of counseling effectiveness. Facilitation of SA by the practicum experience may contribute towards increased counselor effectiveness however, this cannot be empirically determined within the limits of the present study.

The major reason for suspecting the facilitation of SA to lead to increased counselor effectiveness is the reciprocity of the counselor-client relationship discussed in detail earlier.

The present study was designed to assess whether EP 512 within the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Alberta facilitates SA and hence counselor effectiveness. There are two aspects to this question. One is the theoretical question of whether practicum experience facilitates SA while the other is the practical question of whether a specific component of a specific program facilitates SA.

Although numerous studies have examined the relation between SA and counselor effectiveness, few have specifically investigated the relation between SA and

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counseling practicum experience. The need to obtain more data on this relationship is another reason for the present study.

All of the studies of the association between SA and practicum experience (Anderson, 1970; Bonk, Knapp, & Michael, 1978; Melcher, 1972; Naar, 1974) have used pre, post test measures of POI scales. The problem with a repeated measures design in this situation is the temporal instability of the POI as discussed earlier. The present study seeks to avoid this problem by using a cross sectional rather than longitudinal approach to the study of the relation between SA and practicum experience. This takes the form of a quasi independent groups design and planned comparisons.

The issues addressed by this part of the study concern the construct validity of the POI and the efficacy of a component of the counseling program within the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Alberta.

The remaining aspect of the present study is concerned primarily with the construct validity of the POI. It has been hypothesized previously that there should be a negative correlation between SA and Neuroticism (as measured by the EPI). Only two studies have attempted to validate the POI in this way (Knapp, 1965; Doyle, 1976). Consequently this study is a further attempt to replicate these findings and contribute to a determination of the construct validity of the instrument.

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Hypotheses

The hypotheses listed below need to be interpreted within the context of the graduate program of the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Alberta. Three groups of students served as subjects in this study - non counseling graduate students, counseling graduate students with practicum experience and counseling graduate students without practicum experience.

It is hypothesized that: (1) counseling students who have practicum experience score significantly higher than counseling students without practicum experience on the scales of the POI, (2) counseling students with practicum experience score significantly higher than non counseling students on the scales of the POI, (3) counseling students with practicum experience score significantly lower on Neuroticism than counseling students without practicum, (4) counseling students with practicum experience score significantly lower on Neuroticism than non counseling students, (5) Neuroticism correlates significantly with some of the scales of the POI.

These hypotheses were the a priori focus of the study but not intended to restrict further exploration of central and related issues in this thesis by means of supplementary data analysis to be reported later.

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II. METHOD

Subjects

The subjects were 79 graduate students from the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Alberta. There were 37 counseling students who had completed EP 512, 20 counseling students who had not yet taken EP 512 and 22 non counseling students. Subjects participated in this study between March-September 1978.

Procedure

A letter was sent to current graduate students in the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Alberta explaining one of the major purposes of the study and requesting their cooperation by the completion of the POI and EPI, form A (see Appendix C). Testing sessions were arranged at the convenience of the subjects due to work, class and personal commitments. Of the 110 students approached, 86 agreed to participate in the study. Some were suspicious of or hostile to the study and refused to participate. Of those completing the two inventories seven subjects had to be deleted from the study due to either pseudo-actualized profiles or qualifying for inclusion in two groups. Subjects were asked to indicate the year of the program they were in - first year or more than first year.

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Design

A quasi independent groups experimental design was employed in order to minimize some of the sources of internal invalidity associated with the possible pre and post treatment administration of the POI and EPI (see Campbell & Stanley, 1963). The counseling students without practicum experience and the non counseling students (without practicum) served as two control groups. It was not known a priori whether either of the two counseling groups would emerge as significantly different from each other or the non counseling group in terms of SA.

The three groups were divided into two levels (first year or more than first year of the program) to form a 3x2 factorial design to determine whether a subject's stage in the graduate program might be a confounding factor with the facilitation of SA.

The major predictions were stated in terms of planned comparisons and hypothesized associations (listed at the end of Chapter 1).

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III. RESULTS

Twelve two way analyses of variance were performed on subscale scores on the POI for the three groups over two levels of year in the graduate program. None of the 12 tests for interaction between the main factors was significant. The main effect of year in the program was not significant for separate analyses using 12 dependent variables (POI subscales).

The majority of the interactions (group x year in the program) for the 12 POI subscales were well short of the significance level of .05 (eg. Tc, $p<.28$; I, $p<.64$; SAV, $p<.94$; Ex, $p<.74$; Fr, $p<.56$; S, $p<.61$; Sr, $p<.92$; Sa, $p<.11$; Nc, $p< .57$; Sy, $p<.69$; A, $p<.34$; C, $p<.96$). A similar situation held for the significance levels for main effect of year in the program on the same twelve variables (eg. Tc, $p<.91$; I, $p<.86$; SAV, $p<.98$; Ex, $p<.53$; Fr, $p<.53$; S, $p<.69$; Sr, $p<.93$; Sa, $p<.58$; Nc, $p<.21$; Sy, $p<.71$; A, $p<.87$; C, $p<.76$). These results clearly established that the length of time in the graduate program did not affect SA and thus was not confounded with the possible facilitation of SA by practicum experience.

Table 1 shows the results of the planned comparisons of counseling students with practicum to counseling students without practicum on the 12 subscales of the POI, Neuroticism and Extraversion. Figure 1 presents the the same data for these two groups in terms of POI profiles.

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TABLE 1

Comparison of Counseling Students With Practicum and Counseling Students Without Practicum on POI Scales, Neuroticism and Extraversion

Dependent Variable		Counselors With Practicum		Counselors Without Practicum		
		M	SD	M	SD	t
Time Competent	Tc	19.91	1.63	18.65	3.42	1.89*
Inner Directed	I	101.89	8.74	95.85	11.42	2.23*
Self-Actualizing Value	SAV	23.08	1.75	21.95	2.74	1.89*
Existentiality	Ex	21.00	2.61	19.35	3.40	2.04*
Feeling Reactivity	Fr	18.81	2.51	17.50	2.43	1.89*
Spontaneity	S	15.18	1.83	13.90	2.33	2.29*
Self Regard	Sr	14.37	1.25	13.95	2.03	0.98
Self-Acceptance	Sa	19.32	3.00	18.05	3.50	1.44
Nature of Man	Nc	12.59	1.72	12.55	1.90	0.08
Synergy	Sy	7.89	0.93	7.65	1.38	0.78
Acceptance of Aggression	A	18.72	2.64	17.30	2.57	1.96*
Capacity for Intimate Contact	C	22.86	2.91	20.95	2.83	2.38*
Extraversion	E	11.91	3.66	11.85	3.15	0.07
Neuroticism	N	6.05	4.45	8.35	6.07	1.63

* $p<.05$ (one tailed test)

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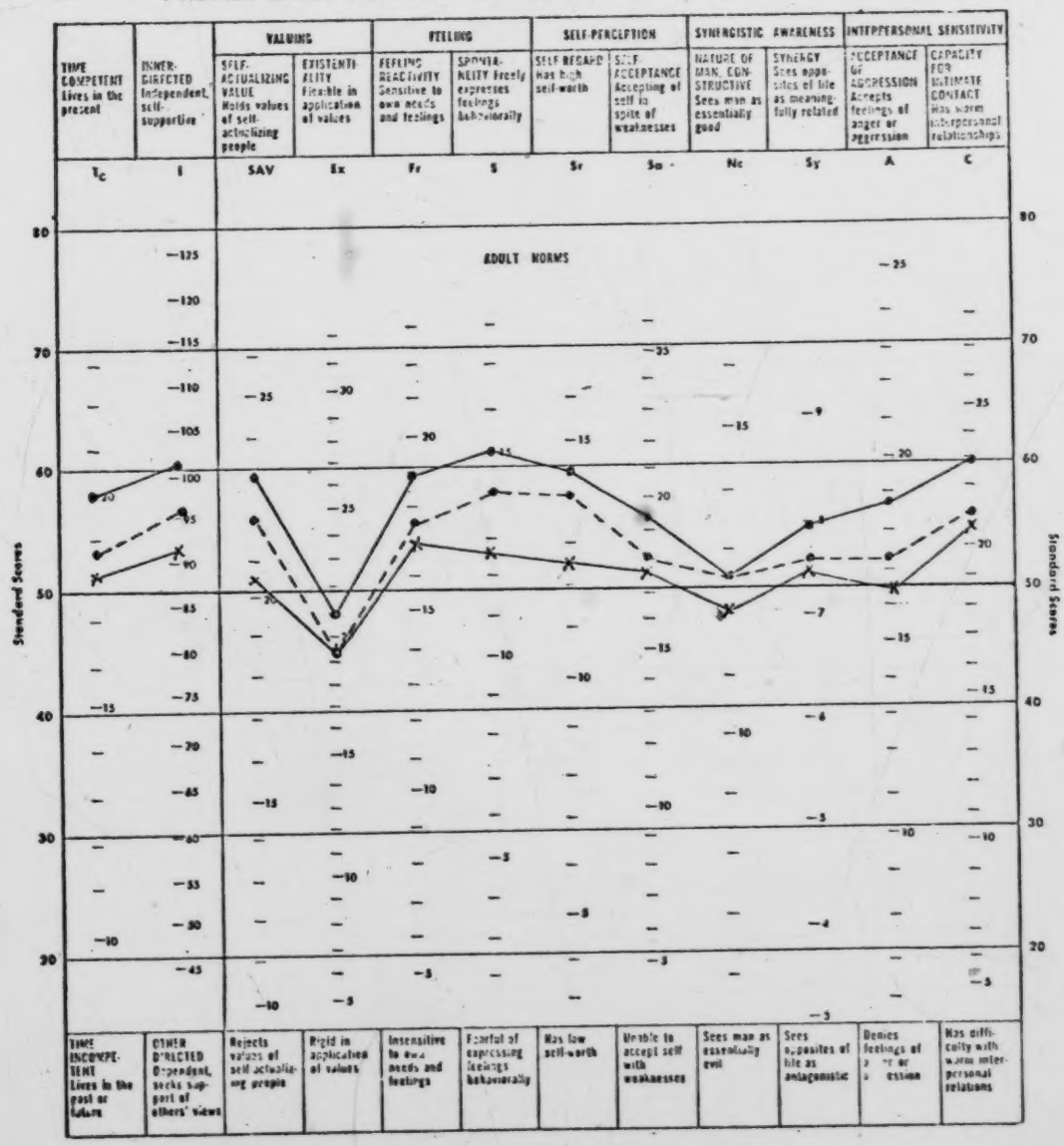
FIGURE I

POI PROFILES FOR COUNSELING STUDENTS WITH PRACTICUM, COUNSELING STUDENTS WITHOUT PRACTICUM AND NON COUNSELING STUDENTS

PROFILE SHEET FOR THE PERSONAL ORIENTATION INVENTORY


VALUING
FEELING
SELF-PERCEPTION
SYNERGISTIC AWARENESS
INTERPERSONAL SENSITIVITY
TIME COMPETENT Lives in the present
INNER-DIRECTED Independent, self-supportive
SELF-ACTUALIZING VALUE Holds values of self-actualizing people
EXISTENTIALITY Flexible in application of values
FEELING REACTIVITY Sensitive to own needs and feelings
SPONTANEITY Freely expresses feelings behaviorally
SELF REGARD Has high self-worth
SELF-ACCEPTANCE Accepting of self in spite of weaknesses
NATURE OF MAN: CONSTRUCTIVE Sees man as essentially good
SYNERGY Sees opposites of life as meaningfully related
ACCEPTANCE OF AGGRESSION Accepts feelings of anger or aggression
CAPACITY FOR INTIMATE CONTACT Has warm interpersonal relationships
Tc
I
SAV
Ex
Fr
S
Sr
Sa
Nc
Sy
A
C
ADULT NORMS
Standard Scores
TIME INCOMPETENT Lives in the past or future
OTHER-DIRECTED Dependent, seeks support of others' views
Rejects values of self actualizing people
Rigid in application of values
Insensitive to own needs and feelings
Fearful of expressing feelings behaviorally
Has low self-worth
Unable to accept self with weaknesses
Sees man as essentially evil
Sees opposites of life as antagonistic
Denies feelings of anger or aggression
Has difficulty with warm interpersonal relations

COUNSELING STUDENTS WITH PRACTICUM (●——●) (N=37)
COUNSELING STUDENTS WITHOUT PRACTICUM (●- - -●) (N=20)
NON COUNSELING STUDENTS (×——×) (N=22)

Counseling students with practicum scored significantly higher ($p<.05$) on 8 subscales (Tc, I, SAV, Ex, Fr, S, A, C). There were no significant differences on four subscales (Sr, Sa, Nc, Sy). The data strongly suggest that the practicum experience facilitates SA.

The scores for the three groups are largely within the normal range. All three groups are below the normal range on Ex. The largest differences between the counselors with practicum and the other groups occur on Tc, I, SAV, Fr, S, A, and C. These are variables which have been shown to be predictors of counselor effectiveness in previous studies (cited in Chapter 1 under Counseling Studies).

All groups had depressed scores on Ex and Nc however this pattern is characteristic of many profiles shown in the POI manual.

The profile of the non counseling students was close to the borderline of actualizing non-actualizing while the other two groups were in the actualizing range except for the scores on Ex. The profile of counselors with practicum (see Figure 2) compares favorably to the profile of the actualizing sample from Shostrom's study (1964).

Table 2 presents the results of the planned comparisons between counselors with practicum experience and non counseling students on the 12 subscales of the POI, Neuroticism and Extraversion. Figure 1 presents the same data for these two groups in terms of POI profiles. Counseling students with practicum scored significantly

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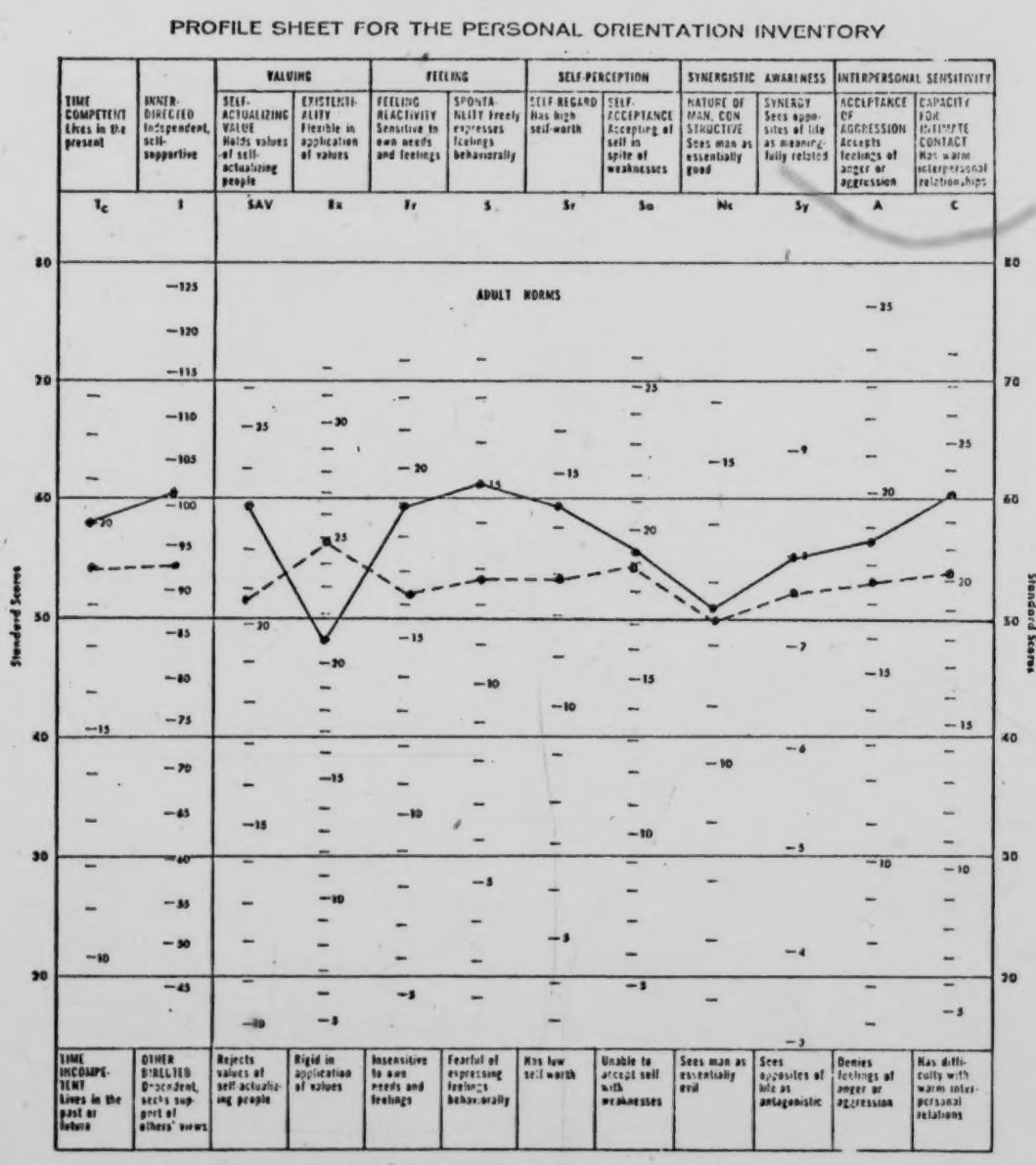
FIGURE 2

POI PROFILES FOR COUNSELING STUDENTS WITH PRACTICUM AND SHOSTROM'S (1964) NOMINATED ACTUALIZING SAMPLE



COUNSELING STUDENTS WITH PRACTICUM (———) (N=37)
SHOSTROM'S (1964) NOMINATED ACTUALIZING SAMPLE (- - - -) (N=29)

TABLE 2

Comparison of Counseling Students With Practicum and Non Counseling Students on POI Scales, Neuroticism and Extraversion

Dependent Variable		Counselors With Practicum		Non Counselors		
		M	SD	M	SD	t
Time Competent	Tc	19.91	1.63	18.09	4.25	2.34*
Inner Directed	I	101.89	8.74	91.36	13.83	3.58*
Self-Actualizing Value	SAV	23.08	1.75	20.50	3.90	3.48*
Existentiality	Ex	21.00	2.61	19.45	3.68	1.87*
Feeling Reactivity	Fr	18.81	2.51	16.95	3.34	2.42*
Spontaneity	S	15.18	1.83	12.59	3.33	3.86*
Self Regard	Sr	14.37	1.25	12.59	2.40	3.75*
Self-Acceptance	Sa	19.32	3.00	17.77	4.30	1.62
Nature of Man	Nc	12.59	1.72	12.13	1.88	0.95
Synergy	Sy	7.89	0.93	7.59	1.18	1.08
Acceptance of Aggression	A	18.72	2.64	16.31	3.83	2.85*
Capacity for Intimate Contact	C	22.86	2.91	20.77	3.67	2.41*
Extraversion	E	11.91	3.66	10.63	3.73	1.29
Neuroticism	N	6.05	4.45	6.45	3.21	0.36

* $p<.05$ (one tailed test)

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higher than non counseling students on 9 of the 12 subscales (Tc, I, SAV, Ex, Fr, S, Sr, A, C). There were no significant differences on three subscales (Nc, Sy, Sa). These data strongly suggest that the facilitation of SA is more likely to be attributable to practicum experience than something unrelated to practicum experience. These analyses clearly show that counselors with practicum experience are more self-actualized than non counseling students or counseling students without practicum experience.

The question of whether counseling students without practicum experience score higher on SA than non counseling students was examined by planned comparisons on the 12 POI subscales as shown in Table 3. The same data are presented in terms of POI profiles in Figure 1. Counseling students without practicum were not significantly different from non counseling students on the 12 POI subscales with the exception of Sr. These results strongly support the contention that the practicum experience is responsible for the facilitation of SA rather than an unknown artifact. The above pattern of results strongly supports the contention that practicum experience in general can facilitate SA and that specifically, EP 512 facilitates the SA of counseling students in the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Alberta.

Table 4 shows the intercorrelations of 12 POI subscales. This Table also shows the intercorrelations for the same 12 POI subscales from the POI manual for purposes

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TABLE 3

Comparison of Counseling Students With Practicum and Non Counseling Students on POI Scales, Neuroticism and Extraversion

Dependent Variable		Counselors Without Practicum		Non Counselors		
		M	SD	M	SD	t
Time Competent	Tc	18.65	3.42	18.09	4.25	0.46
Inner Directed	I	95.85	11.42	91.36	13.83	1.13
Self-Actualizing Value	SAV	21.95	2.74	20.50	3.90	1.38
Existentiality	Ex	19.35	3.40	19.45	3.68	0.09
Feeling Reactivity	Fr	17.50	2.43	16.95	3.34	0.59
Spontaneity	S	13.90	2.33	12.59	3.33	1.45
Self Regard	Sr	13.95	2.03	12.59	2.40	1.96*
Self-Acceptance	Sa	18.05	3.50	17.77	4.30	0.22
Nature of Man	Nc	12.55	1.90	12.13	1.88	0.70
Synergy	Sy	7.65	1.38	7.59	1.18	0.14
Acceptance of Aggression	A	17.30	2.57	16.31	3.83	0.96
Capacity for Intimate Contact	C	20.95	2.83	20.77	3.67	0.17
Extraversion	E	11.85	3.15	10.63	3.73	1.13
Neuroticism	N	8.35	6.07	6.45	3.21	1.28

* $p<.05$ (one tailed test)

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TABLE 4

Comparison of Intercorrelation Matrices for POI from Knapp (1965) and Present Study

POI Scales		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Time Competent	Tc	(.49) .61	(.26) .48	(.31) .37	(.20) .35	(.38) .50	(.44) .54	(.43) .52	(.19) .30	(.29) .41	(.17) .41	(.25) .48
Inner Directed	I		(.54) .80	(.70) .77	(.58) .73	(.71) .82	(.62) .68	(.63) .75	(.37) .44	(.41) .59	(.61) .82	(.55) .82
Self-Actualizing Value	SAV			(.21) .53	(.23) .54	(.45) .68	(.56) .70	(.03) .44	(.41) .42	(.58) .70	(.32) .72	(.15) .56
Existentiality	Ex				(.32) .48	(.42) .64	(.32) .35	(.57) .62	(.27) .25	(.36) .52	(.39) .52	(.48) .81
Feeling Reactivity	Fr					(.44) .71	(.25) .37	(.21) .42	(-.03) .32	(.12) .44	(.64) .76	(.53) .65
Spontaneity	S						(.44) .50	(.40) .54	(.17) .20	(.30) .48	(.47) .69	(.30) .70
Self Regard	Sr							(.21) .44	(.32) .31	(.26) .41	(.28) .55	(.23) .47
Self Acceptance	Sc								(.24) .23	(.22) .37	(.32) .58	(.30) .56
Nature of Man	Nc									(.53) .43	(-.04) .28	(-.02) .24
Synergy	Sy										(.28) .49	(.14) .45
Acceptance of Aggression	A											(.44) .67
Capacity for Intimate Contact	C											

Knapp (1965) figures in parentheses.

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of comparison. All groups in the present study were combined for correlational analysis.

Although the POI manual does not list an alpha coefficient for the instrument as a whole, this was calculated from the intercorrelation matrix and variances listed. A derived value of α = .83 was obtained from the manual while the value computed from the present data for the same varibles was α = .87. These data suggest that the POI has high internal consistency but considerable overlapping of scales and likely redundancy. This issue has been a matter of contention (cf. Oakland et al., 1978). It has been suggested that the number of scales be reduced and refined.

Table 5 compares the correlations between POI subscales, Neuroticism and Extraversion obtained from the present study and those of Knapp (1965) and Doyle (1976). Most of the correlations between E and POI subscales in the present study approached zero.

The results of Knapp (1965) and Doyle (1976) suggested that self-actualized people tend to be extraverted. This alleged relationship seems to run counter to specific statements by Maslow suggesting that the high self-actualizer is often a very private person (Maslow, 1962, p. 26) and certainly not an Extravert as Eysenck defines the term (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1963).

The present data cast doubt upon the reliability of Knapp and Doyle's findings regarding Extraversion and SA.

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TABLE 5

Comparison of Correlations Between Neuroticism, Extraversion and POI Subscales

		NEUROTICISM			EXTRAVERSION		
		Knapp (1965) N=94	Doyle (1976) N=150	Present Study N=79	Knapp (1965)	Doyle (1976)	Present Study
Time Competent	Tc	-.57**	-.46**	-.47**	.11	.23**	-.01
Inner Directed	I	-.35**	-.45**	-.22*	.33**	.31**	-.02
Self-Actualizing Value	SAV	-.27**	-.34**	-.01	.18	.28**	-.02
Existentiality	Ex	-.11	-.31**	-.18	.30**	.21**	.05
Feeling Reactivity	Fr	-.08	-.20**	-.09	.30**	.21**	.05
Spontaneity	S	-.34**	-.39**	-.19	.39**	.43**	.17
Self Regard	Sr	-.52**	-.47**	-.37**	.36**	.31**	-.10
Self Acceptance	Sa	-.17	-.43**	-.35**	.10	.25**	.00
Nature of Man	Nc	-.21*	-.13	.03	-.05	.08	-.22
Synergy	Sy	-.25*	-.23**	-.14	.06	.20**	-.05
Acceptance of Aggression	A	-.09	-.21**	-.11	.37**	.33**	.06
Capacity for Intimate Contact	C	-.24*	-.33**	-.23*	.26**	.18**	.02

*$p<.05$

**$p<.01$

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The lack of correlation between Extraversion and POI subscales is more compatible with Maslow's description of SA and hence contributes to the validity of this construct.

Neuroticism correlates significantly with Tc (-.47), I (-.22), Sr (-.37), Sa (-.35), and C (-.23). The most significant correlation in the present study is that between Neuroticism and Tc (r=-.47). This replicated the findings of Knapp (1965) and Doyle (1976). The picture of the Neurotic emerging from the present results is that he/she is likely to be time incompetent, other directed, lacking self-regard, self-acceptance, and the capacity for intimate contact. This picture is compatible with the trait of Neuroticism and consequently bolsters the concurrent validity of the POI.

When considered as a group, the studies presented in Table 5 form a relatively stable picture of the relationship between the POI and Neuroticism. Some inconsistency in the pattern of correlations across the three studies may be an artifact of sample size and composition to some extent. The present sample was probably older and more mature than the undergraduates used by Knapp (1965) and Doyle (1976). There were two subscales which correlated significantly in only one of the three studies (Nc, A) and are thus subject to suspicion.

Tables 1, 2, and 3 show the mean Neuroticism scores for counselors with practicum experience, counselors without practicum experience and non counseling students. None of the paired comparisons between these groups was significant

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although the difference between counselors with practicum and counselors without practicum approached significance ($t(55)=1.63$; $p<.06$).

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IV. DISCUSSION

The major hypotheses of this study were confirmed. The practicum experience of EP 512 facilitates SA. Length of time in the program and entering level of SA of counseling trainees are not confounding factors in the present data.

The construct validity of the POI was enhanced by the significant negative correlations between POI subscales and Neuroticism. The ability of POI scales to discriminate between counselors with and without practicum experience also enhances the construct validity of the instrument. Although the hypothesis that counselors with practicum are less Neurotic than counselors without practicum was not confirmed at the .05 level it was very close to significance ($p < .054$).

In general, the correlations of the POI subscales with Neuroticism replicate the findings of earlier studies and thus bolster the validity of the construct of SA. A major departure from earlier studies occurred with the correlations of POI subscales and Extraversion.

The failure of Extraversion to correlate with most of the POI subscales is congruent with Maslow's definition of SA and goes some way towards countering the anomaly discussed by Oakland et al., (1978). The anomaly arises out of a study by Shostrom and Knapp (1966) who found a significant negative relationship between social introversion measured by the MMPI and the POI scales. These

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correlations suggested that high self-actualizers "tend to be gregarious, out-going, sociable, enthusiastic, assertive, talkative and adept at interpersonal manipulation" (Oakland et al., 1978, p. 83). The present findings suggest the need for further research in order to resolve this ambiguity.

The present results suggest that practicum experience has no effect upon a counselor's level of Sr or Sa. Perhaps students entering the counseling program already have a higher level of Sr but not Sa in relation to non counseling students.

The large number of significant differences on the subscales of the POI between counselors with practicum and counselors without practicum is compatible with Fould's studies (1969a, 1969b, 1969c) which showed a significant correlation between counselor effectiveness and the ability to show empathic understanding, positive regard and facilitative genuineness. There is at least prima facie evidence for believing that practicum experience facilitates the development of these counselor characteristics.

There were no significant differences between the three groups on the subscales of Nc and Sy. The failure of these two subscales to discriminate between groups in this study reinforces the reservations expressed earlier by Oakland et al. (1978) and also reported by Kay et al. (1978). Perhaps both scales need an increase in the number and nature of items or possible deletion from the POI.

A major departure from previous studies of the effect

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of practicum experience upon SA was the use, in the present study, of an independent groups design. This reduced the possibility of sources of internal invalidity associated with repeated measures designs using the POI. The internal consistency of the POI across all groups in this study was high (Cronbach's = .87) suggesting that the POI measures were highly reliable.

The results of this study support earlier findings which have indicated a positive relationship between practicum experience and SA (Anderson, 1970; Bonk et al., 1978; Melcher, 1972; Naar, 1974). Of these four studies Naar's data produced the strongest evidence of a relation between SA and a practicum type experience. Naar reported significant measures on 10 POI subscales while the remaining studies reported increases on 3-4 subscales. The present study supports Naar's findings, adding weight to the evidence for a relationship between SA and practicum experience. The congruence between the present findings and Naar's results is further strengthened by the use of an alternative experimental design in this study. One of the major implications of these data is that personal growth or undergoing personal therapy (Rogers, 1951, 1957) may lead to a more effective practicum experience and ultimately to more effective counseling or therapy.

While the results of the present study suggest that EP 512 facilitates SA within the counseling program of the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of

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Alberta, this relationship appears to be an incidental rather than a specifically stated objective of the program. Available statements of program objectives do not explicitly emphasize the importance of personal growth.

The paucity of research on the effects of practicum experience upon the personal process and development of counselors points to the need for expanded research in this area. Although the present study indicates that practicum experience facilitates SA it is not clear which of the many components, described earlier, is/are responsible and to what degree. Experimental manipulations of such components within research designs offers a possibility for answers to these questions. However, administrators of counseling programs are primarily concerned with the pragmatic realities of producing practitioners rather than risking the possible dislocation of their programs in the interest of researching such questions.

In a review of research on the teaching and learning of psychotherapeutic skills Mattarazzo (1971) describes some of the personality characteristics which are associated with success as a therapist. She lists characteristics such as "psychological good health, flexibility, open mindedness, positive attitudes towards people and interpersonal skill" (p. 905). These characteristics appear to have, at least, face validity in terms of their conceptual similarity to subscales of the POI (e.g. Tc, I, Ex, Nc, C). The current explicit emphasis of the counseling program appears to lean

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towards an emphasis upon technique. The present data suggest that increased emphasis upon the personal process of counselor trainees may lead to a more effective practicum experience and more effective counseling performance. Carkhuff (1967) has also pointed out that a person who is functioning at a higher therapeutic level is better able to function as a model for those with a lower level of adjustment within a therapeutic situation.

A number of studies (Barrett-Lennard, 1962; Feifel & Eells, 1963; Kamin & Caughlan, 1963; Gardner, 1964; Strupp, Wallach, & Wogan, 1964; Lorr, 1965; Rice, 1965) have shown that clients are not impressed by technique but value warmth, helpfulness and human characteristics of the therapist. This seems to be ample reason for explicitly placing a strong emphasis upon personal growth within the context of a counseling program.

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APPENDIX A

Characteristics of Being-love

1. B-love is welcomed into consciousness, and is completely enjoyed. Since it is non-possessive, and is admiring rather than needing, it makes no trouble and is practically always pleasure-giving.
2. It can never be sated; it may be enjoyed without end. It usually grows greater rather than disappearing. It is intrinsically enjoyable. It is end rather than means.
3. The B-love experience is often described as being the same as, and having the same effects as the aesthetic experience or the mystic experience. (See Chapters 6 and 7 on "Peak-Experiences." See also Ref. 104.)
4. The therapeutic and psychogogic effects of experiencing B-love are very profound and widespread. Similar are the characterological effects of the relatively pure love of a healthy mother for her baby, or the perfect love of their God that some mystics have described (69, 36).
5. B-love is, beyond the shadow of a doubt, a richer, "higher," more valuable subjective experience than D-love (which all B-lovers have also previously experienced). This preference is also reported by my other older, more average subjects, many of whom experience both kinds of love simultaneously in varying combinations.
6. D-love <u>can</u> be gratified. The concept "gratification"

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hardly applies at all to admiration-love for another person's admiration-worthiness and love-worthiness.

7. In B-love there is a minimum of anxiety-hostility. For all practical human purposes, it may even be considered to be absent. There can, of course, be anxiety-for-the-other. In D-love one must always expect some degree of anxiety-hostility.
8. B-lovers are more independent of each other, more autonomous, less jealous or threatened, less needful, more individual, more disinterested, but also simultaneously more eager to help the other toward self-actualization, more proud of his triumphs, more altruistic, generous and fostering.
9. The truest, most penetrating perception of the other is made possible by B-love. It is as much a cognitive as an emotional-conative reaction, as I have already emphasized (97, p. 257). So impressive is this, and so often validated by other people's later experience, that, far from accepting the common platitude that love makes people blind, I became more and more inclined to think of the opposite as true, namely that non-love makes us blind.
10. Finally, I may say that B-love, in a profound but testable sense, creates the partner. It gives him a self-image, it gives him self-acceptance, a feeling of love-worthiness, all of which permit him to grow. It is a real question whether the full development of the

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human being is possible without it (Maslow, 1968, pp. 42-43).

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APPENDIX B

The POI Scales

Scoring of the POI scales is accomplished in terms of the two major scales, Time Competence (TC) and Inner-Directed (I), and the ten subscales, described below. Since the major scales are viewed as being clinically interpretable in relative or proportional terms, they are frequently seen as ratios covering the two major areas important in personal development and interpersonal interaction, time orientation and support orientation.

Time orientation reflects the degree to which the individual lives in the present rather than the past or future. Self-actualizing persons are those living primarily in the present, with full awareness and contact, and full feeling reactivity. They are able to tie the past and the future to the present in meaningful continuity, and their aspirations are tied meaningfully to present working goals. They are characterized by faith in the future without rigid or over-idealized goals. They are "time competent." In contrast, the "time incompetent" person lives primarily in the past--with guilts, regrets, and resentments--and/or in the future--with idealized goals, plans, expectations, predictions, and fears.

Support orientation is designed to measure whether an individual's mode of reaction is characteristically "self" oriented or "other" oriented. Inner-, or self-, directed persons are guided primarily by internalized principles and

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motivations while other-directed persons are, to a great extent, influenced by their peer group or other external forces.

Scores on each of the ten subscales are intended to reflect a particular facet important in the development of self-actualizing. These subscales may be defined as follows:

Self-Actualizing Value (SAV) measures the affirmation of primary values of self-actualizing people. A high score indicates that the individual holds and lives by values characteristic of self-actualizing people, while a low score suggests the rejection of such values. Items in this scale cut across many characteristics.

Existentiality (Ex) measures the ability to situationally react without rigid adherence to principles. Existentiality measures one's flexibility in applying values or principles to one's life. It is a measure of one's ability to use good judgment in applying these general principles. Higher scores reflect flexibility in application of values, while low scores may suggest a tendency to hold to values so rigidly that they become compulsive or dogmatic.

Feeling Reactivity (Fr) measures sensitivity or responsiveness to one's own needs and feelings. A high score indicates the presence of such sensitivity, while a low score suggests insensitivity to these needs and feelings.

Spontaneity (S) measures freedom to react spontaneously, or to be oneself. A high score measures the

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ability to express feelings in spontaneous action. A low score suggests that one is fearful of expressing feeling behaviorally.

Self-Regard (Sr) measures affirmation of self because of worth or strength. A high score measures the ability to like oneself because of one's strength as a person. A low score suggests feelings of low self-worth.

Self-Acceptance (Sa) measures the affirmation or acceptance of oneself in spite of one's weaknesses or deficiencies. A high score suggests acceptance of self and weaknesses, and a low score suggests inability to accept one's weakness. It is more difficult to achieve self-acceptance than self-regard, but self-actualizing requires both.

Nature of Man--Constructive (Nc) measures the degree of one's constructive view of the nature of man. A high score suggests that one sees man as essentially good and can resolve the good-evil, masculine-feminine, selfish-unselfish, and spiritual-sensual dichotomies in the nature of man. A high score, therefore, measures the self-actualizing ability to be synergic in one's understanding of human nature. A low score suggests that one sees man as essentially bad or evil.

Synergy (Sy) measures the ability to be synergistic--to transcend dichotomies. A high score is a measure of the ability to see opposites of life as meaningfully related. A low score suggests that one sees opposites of life as

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antagonistic. When one is synergistic one sees that work and play are not different, that lust and love, selfishness and selflessness, and other dichotomies are not really opposites at all.

Acceptance of Aggression (A) measures the ability to accept one's natural aggressiveness--as opposed to the defensiveness, denial, and repression of aggression. A high score indicates the ability to accept anger or aggression within oneself as natural. A low score suggests the denial of such feelings.

Capacity for Intimate Contact (C) measures the ability to develop contactful intimate relationships with other human beings, unencumbered by expectations and obligations. A high score indicates the ability to develop meaningful, contactful, relationships with other human beings, while a low score suggests that one has difficulty with warm interpersonal relationships (Knapp, 1976, pp. 5-7).

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APPENDIX C

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY
EDUCATION CENTRE--NORTH WING
TELEPHONE (403) 432-5245

FACULTY OF EDUCATION
THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
EDMONTON, ALBERTA
CANADA T6G 2G5

March 6, 1978

University of Alberta

Dear

We are interested in determining whether there are personality differences between graduate counseling students and graduate students from the basic area. We are particularly interested in the individual's level of self-actualization. A priori, we anticipate that counseling students will be at least, if not more self-actualized than basic area students and that counseling students near the end of their program should be at least, if not more self-actualized than beginning counseling students. We are assuming, for sake of hypothesis, that the counseling program facilitates personal growth. These conjectures, of course, remain as empirical questions which provide the basis for the study.

What we hope to do is administer several personality scales to graduate counseling and basic areas students--of both veteran and rookie status. We would like to find as many beginning counselors as possible who have not taken the practicum and theories of counseling course in their first year, however this hope is slim. Your participation in this experiment would be voluntary and anonymous. We know how 'edgy' graduate students are about revealing themselves but hope that you will feel secure enough to help us begin to seek answers to some interesting questions concerning our counseling program.

We shall arrange the following testing sessions as shown below. Testing should take about one hour. If you can make yourself available please indicate the time on the chart and return this letter to either of our mailboxes. If you are available but at some other time, to be arranged, please indicate. We shall phone you later to arrange a time. We hope to test all participants in several group sessions. You can assign yourself a mystery number to place on the instruments you complete, so that we can identify the data for analysis. You can leave your data in a box at the front of the room after testing. We are not interested in your personality as an individual but in group personality profiles. You may find exposure to the instruments we use an interesting experience. We look forward to your cooperation. Anyone interested in obtaining their scores after testing can do so by checking a list of ID numbers and instrument scores which we shall prepare.

Sincerely,

John Osborne, Associate Professor
call 455-8011 Liliane Steeves, Graduate Student

JO:cs

Mon 3-13-78 3-20-78	Wed 3-15-78 3-22-78	Thurs 3-16-78 3-23-78	Sat 3-18-78 3-25-78	Check your time choice
12:00 p.m. 1:00 2:00 3:00 4:00	3:30 p.m. 4:30	10:00 a.m. 11:00 3:30 p.m. 4:30 7:00 8:00	10:00 a.m. 11:00	

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